THE CRUSADER'S SONG TO THE HEBREW MAIDEN.

BY MRS. CRAWFORD.

Hebrew maiden, veil thy beauty,
Lest my heart a rebel prove,
Breaking bands of holy duty,
For the silken chains of love;
Look not on me, sweet deceiver,
Though thy young eyes beam with light,
They might tempt a true believer
To the darkest shades of night.

Hebrew maiden, while I linger,
Hanging o'er thy melting lute,
Every chord beneath thy finger
Wakes a pulse that should be mute;
We must part, and part for ever—
Eyes that could my life renew!
Lips that mine could cling to ever—
Hebrew maiden, now adieu!

THE HEBREW MAIDEN'S ANSWER.

Christian soldier, must we sever?
Does thy creed our fates divide?
Must we part, to part for ever?
Shall another be thy bride?
Spirits of my fathers sleeping!
Ye who once in Zion trod,
Heaven's mysterious councils keeping—
Tell me of the Christian's God!

Is the Cross of Christ the token
Of a saving faith to man?
Can my early vows be broken?
Spirits answer me!—They can.
Mercy—mercy shone about him—
All the blessed with him trod;
No, we can't be saved without him!
Christian, I believe thy God!

NIAGARA.

Flow on for ever, in thy glorious robe
Of terror and of beauty; God hath set
His rainbow on thy forehead, and the cloud
Mantled around thy feet.—And he doth give
Thy voice of thunder power to speak of him
Eternally—bidding the lip of man
Keep silence, and upon thy rocky altar pour
Incense of awe-struck praise.

And who can dare
To lift the insect trump of earthly hope,
Or love, or sorrow, 'mid the peal sublime
Of thy tremendous hymn?—Even ocean shrinks
Back from thy brotherhood, and his wild waves
Retire abashed: for he doth sometimes seem
To sleep like a spent laborer, and recall
His wearied billows from their vexing play,
And lull them to a cradle calm; but thou,
With everlasting, undecaying tide,
Dost rest not night or day.

The morning stars,
When first they sang o'er young creation's birth,
Heard thy deep anthem; and those wrecking fires
That wait the archangel's signal to dissolve
The solid earth, shall find Jehovah's name
Graven, as with a thousand diamond spears,
On thine unfathomed page. Each leafy bough
That lifts itself within thy proud domain,
Doth gather greenness from thy living spray,
And tremble at the baptism. Lo! yon birds
Do venture boldly near, bathing their wing
Amid the foam and mist!—'Tis meet for them
To touch thy garment's hem—or lightly stir
The snowy leaflets of thy vapor wreath—
Who sport unharmed upon the fleecy cloud,
And listen at the echoing gate of Heaven
Without reproof. But as for us—it seems
Scarce lawful with our broken tones to speak
Familiarly of thee. Methinks, to tint
Thy glorious features with our pencil's point,
Were profanation.

Thou dost make the soul
A wondering witness of thy majesty!
And while it rushes with delirious joy
To tread thy vestibule, dost chain its step,
And check its rapture, with the humbling view
Of its own nothingness, bidding it stand
In the dread presence of the Invisible,
As it may swear unto its God through thee.

METEOROLOGY.—WIND—STORMS.

BY PROFESSOR EDWARD FOREMAN.

We do not believe, with M. Bory de St. Vincent, that atmospheric phenomena "are connected with a train of agencies, whose very existence we can never appreciate, and whose powers are beyond our means of calculation." Such changes, either directly or indirectly affect animal and vegetable life, to an extent too great to permit us to be convinced that, from some of their manifestations, their causes will not be developed. The fixed laws designed by incomprehensible wisdom to govern them, and through them to work out benevolent ends, have already been discovered to exist; the detail of their operations, and the set terms by which they may be enunciated, alone remain to excite philosophical research. When this knowledge shall have been obtained, we will be enabled to anticipate the recurrence of atmospheric changes, timely prepare to avoid their power, or use them in the most propitious manner, to increase our happiness and wealth.

The surest guarantee for success in this will be found in the triumphs accomplished over other like difficulties. Until late in the eighteenth century, the definite proportions in which bodies unite in chemical combination had not been discovered; now a mathematical feature is as clearly stamped on the science of chemistry as upon astronomy, or any other subject of physical research. A piece of iron left carelessly to rest in the atmosphere, unites with the vital principle of the atmosphere, according to an invariable law, which measures out the quantity of particles in each that shall unite, and beyond which limits no union can ensue.

An astronomer beholds a fiery stranger enter the field of his telescope, whose advent had escaped notice in previous years. He watches its path among the surrounding stellar bodies, calculates its velocity, traces the eccentricity of its ellipse on paper, and assigns it a place in the great system of our sun. The calculation for the return of this comet, so exactly verified, is the great glory of modern astronomy. Not four lustres ago was this observation recorded; and the successive periods of its return, calculated to a minute portion of time, proves the applicability of mathematical laws, to explain celestial phenomena. "God," says old Euclid, "works by geometry;" the laws which govern the material universe are necessarily delivered in the language of mathematics. The same mode of induction which enables philosophers to predict the return of a comet, gives to them the power of predicting the existence of a new chemical compound, which, not existing ready formed, *can be made* by combining its elements in the proper definite quantities.

If all other physical phenomena are produced in consequence of the operation of certain fixed laws, so also are those of atmospheric changes. However irregular the tempest or the tornado may appear to the inobservant, some of the conditions of the air which tend to produce them have been reduced to rule.

The atmosphere is composed of innumerable strata of air, superimposed upon each other, and diminishing in density as the height increases above the sea level. From its refractive influence on light, from its tendency to gravitate to the earth in one direction, and its permanent elasticity urging it from the earth in another, and by calculating the point or line where these two latter forces counterbalance each other, it is found that it extends to a height short of fifty miles above the sea level. It revolves with the globe, and with it all atmospheric phenomena, as rain, hail, snow, whirlwinds and storms of every description. A state of rest or equilibrium among its particles produces a calm; when a disturbing cause enters, the balance is destroyed, and wind of greater or less force ensues. Wind is therefore air in motion, or the result of a propagation of aerial currents from various causes.

Alteration in temperature is perhaps the most usual, as the most important cause of winds.—There are two opposite modes in which they may be propagated. In the first, the air over any given locality may be condensed by cold, as by a shower of rain; its elasticity is weakened when deprived of a portion of its heat, and currents, towards all surrounding quarters, flow from over the cooled surface. In the second mode, the blast takes place in one direction, and the progressive march of the wind is in a contrary direction. As, for instance, Wargentine, speaking of the winds in the north of Europe, says, "when the winds proceed from the west, they are felt at Moscow earlier than at Abo, in Finland, though the latter city is 400 leagues farther west than Moscow; and this wind does not reach Finland until after it has blown over Sweden." Dr. Franklin was the first to make the observation, that winds are felt to blow sooner at the spot where the great disturbance in the air occurs, than at points more remote. He had observed a solar eclipse at Boston, and in a few hours afterwards a northeast storm passed over that city: news reached him sometime afterwards that the eclipse had been rendered invisible at Charleston, S. C., in consequence of the prevalence of a northeast storm at that place. He drew the inference that it was an extension of the same storm, and that, along the Atlantic coast of America, northeast storms begin at the southwest, and proceed to *windward*, at the rate of more than 100 miles an hour. The law here deduced was of more general application than the American philosopher suspected, and the generalization has been lately made by Mr. Redfield, of New York.

As an illustration of the propagation of air currents by the first mode, we will quote Captain Horsburgh, of the British navy: "I have several times, in calm weather, seen a cloud generate and diffuse a breeze on the surface of the sea, which spread in different directions from the place of descent. A remarkable instance of this occurred in Malacca Strait, during a calm day, when a fleet was in company. A breeze commenced suddenly from a dense cloud; its centre of action seemed to be in the middle of the fleet, which was much scattered. The breeze spread in every direction from a centre, and produced a singular appearance in the fleet, for every ship hauled close to wind as the breeze reached her, and when it became general, exhibited to view the singular spectacle of each ship sailing completely round a circle, all of them at the same time being close hauled." It is thus that an impulse given to any point of the atmosphere is successively propagated in all directions, in waves diverging as from the centre of a sphere to greater and greater distances, but with decreasing intensity, like the waves formed in still water by the falling of a stone.

In the second mode for the production of winds, a vacuum or diminution of pressure being at any point effected, by some heating cause, for instance, the air which flows towards it to fill up the vacated spaces, commences its motion, of course, nearest the point of deficient equilibrium, from which the currents gradually retire, as Dr. Franklin so happily conjectured.

The trade winds are usually ascribed to the heat of the sun, occasioning aerial currents, by the rarefaction of the air at the equator, which causes the cooler and denser part of the atmosphere to rush in laterally from the surrounding regions, and flow along the surface of the earth towards the equator; the heated air at the same time rises to the higher strata, and passes towards the poles. Thus are formed two opposed currents in the direction of the meridian. But the air in rotation with the earth diminishes its velocity as we approach either pole. In approaching the equator, it revolves slower than the corresponding portions of the earth over which it rests, and the hand held up strikes against it with the excess velocity of any body revolving with the earth. This reaction developes a resistance opposed to the direction of rotation. Thus, to a person supposing himself to be at rest, the wind will appear to blow in a contrary direction to the earth's rotation. or from east to west, which is the direction of the trade winds.

The sea and land breezes are produced by the same general causes as in ordinary winds, acting with some regularity, however, so as to induce a periodical flow of currents of air, during one portion of the day, from the sea, and for the remainder from the land. In the Indian Archipelago, a singular phenomenon is frequently noticed at a certain hour in the day, and near the period when the breeze will change its direction. It has been ascertained by intelligent navigators in those seas, that there is, a short distance off shore, a space entirely calm, lying between the land and sea breeze. It is sometimes five or six fathoms wide, and is bounded on the sea and land side by a line, up to which either wind blows; but there it is reflected upwards, and loses its former direction. In Kotzebue's Voyage round the World, occurs a curious passage describing a singular phenomenon. When on his voyage from New Archangel to California, being in latitude 40 deg., he met with two violent contending winds blowing from directly opposite quarters, and yet leaving between them a path some fathoms broad, stretching from east to west, and perfectly calm, while on both sides the wind and waves were in furious turmoil.

Inasmuch as the atmosphere is the vehicle by which sounds are transmitted, its absence would cause a death-like silence to pervade all nature. Any degree of rarity incapable of being produced will be attended by a proportionate incapacity in the air to impart sonorous vibrations from one of its particles to another. This principle is exemplified, in a singular manner, by the difficulty experienced in hearing even very loud noises, during the high rarefaction of the air produced by, and attendant upon, a tempest of wind. A single illustration will suffice here, drawn from the experience of many witnesses, who were present in the town of Shelbyville, Tennessee, when a very remarkable hurricane passed over that place, in June, 1830. This occurrence was attended with the fall of many houses; many strong timbers, as in roofs, were torn asunder and hurled to the earth; and trees, raised from their places, were dashed to the ground, and their limbs crushed and broken. Accidents of this kind, when they occur from other causes, in calm weather, are attended with deafening, stunning sounds; but on this occasion, not one individual, beyond the range of the hurricane, heard the fall of the houses, although they were standing or sat within one hundred feet of them. Trees torn to pieces, and piled around a house, were not heard by the inmates of it; nor were they aware of the danger. Within doors, conversation was heard in the ordinary tone of voice; but no sounds from without gave any warning of what was occurring outside, until informed of it by fugitives seeking shelter. Many persons remarked, that they heard nothing but the crash of their own house when falling. Those who stood a little out of the path of the storm heard nothing to denote its ravages; but, high and clear, the whistling of the wind sounded like a loud bugle in the heavens. This storm beautifully illustrates Franklin's hypothesis of storms; since it is distinctly testified by the inhabitants of this town, that the corner of the house which was *next to the wind* was the safest part of the building.

For some years, philosophers on both sides of the Atlantic have been collecting the facts concerning all remarkable wind storms; and, by applying rigorous inductions, have, at length, developed some clearness, from a very obscure subject. As it was remarked at the commencement of this paper, something like the operation of regular laws has been traced through the progress of these phenomena, as they traverse both the sea and land.

Ever since 1801, it has been suspected that hurricanes will be found to be great whirlwinds. If we suppose this to be the case, then, one occurring at sea, some judgment can be formed as to the part of it in which a ship may happen to be at any moment, by observing the force of the wind, and its changes of direction. If these latter are sudden, and the wind violent, it is most probable that the ship is near the centre of the aerial vortex; if the wind blows a long time from the same point, and changes its direction slowly, then the ship may be near its extremity. Mr. Redfield has confirmed this supposition of the gyral motion of storms, by ascertaining that, when a northeast storm is blowing on the shores of America, the wind was blowing with equal violence, some leagues at sea, on the Atlantic, directly from the southwest and opposite quarter. This conclusion was drawn by inspecting the log books of vessels, after their arrival, which were off the coast while the storm raged on shore.—He also tracked Franklin's storms from the south, advancing progressively, but blowing northeast at the same time, and found that winds on opposite sides of the shore, when the storm prevailed, blew in opposite directions, and that the entire storm was a progressive whirlwind, one of a series which revolve constantly in the same direction.

An illustration of this view is found in the disastrous storm of 1809, which was experienced by the East India fleet, under convoy of the Culloden line-of-battle ship, the Terpischore frigate, and four British men-of-war, which left the Cape of Good Hope about the same time, intending to cruise near the Mauritius. Some of these vessels scudded, and ran in the storm for days; some, by lying to, got almost immediately out of it, or rather it passed away from them; while others, by taking a wrong direction, went into the heart of it, foundered, and were never heard of more; others, by sailing right across the calm space, met the same storm in different parts of its progress, and the wind blowing in opposite directions, and subsequently spoke of it as two storms which they encountered: while others, by cruising about in the bend of the curve, but beyond the circle of the great whirl, escaped the storm altogether, which had been for days raging on all sides of them.

If these facts are correctly stated, and the conclusions be logically drawn—and all things warrant us in confiding in both—very important practical lessons may be learned for working a ship, when she encounters a gale, so as to escape from it. The mode in which the wind veers will indicate to the officers of the ship into what portion of the storm she is falling. If the ship be so manœuvred that the wind shall veer aft, instead of ahead, and the vessel is made to come up, instead of being allowed to break off, she will run out of the storm altogether. If the contrary course be taken, either through chance or ignorance, she will go right into the whirl, where she runs a great risk of being taken suddenly aback, and will assuredly meet the opposite wind in passing out of the whirl.

Law and order are thus deduced from the confusion of the whirlwind. Knowing its course, its recurrence can be anticipated, and timely preparation made to avoid its power. The office of the winds is to carry heat and moisture from one region of the globe to another, and thus modify the general climate of the earth. The most violent tempests are considered, now, to be oscillations of change, about the mean condition of the weather, in any given place. The force which produces the temporary derangement is accompanied by a provision to abridge its duration, and moderate its fury. We behold here the workings of a provident law, whose result is a great general ood; and we are taught that in the natural, as in the moral creation, there is nothing that is altogether evil.—*American Magazine.*

WATERLOO.

The following brief remarks on the *introductory* of the memorable battle of Waterloo are translated from a German work entitled, "Wanderung durch Vaterhaus, Schule, Kriegslager, und Akademie zur Kirche, &c." It was after a fatiguing march, that, on the 16th of June, the writer, with his regiment, arrived in sight of Ligny, two hours before the commencement of the battle which formed the terrible prelude to that of Waterloo. This was the young soldier's first battle.

"What I am about to notice," he observes, "is what forcibly obtrudes itself on every one engaged in a battle. The corn was waving beautifully before us; but no sooner had one troop passed through, than the glory of the field vanished, and the green stalks lay level on the earth.

"Every man now threw away his superfluous baggage: the finest and the coarsest linen was lying scattered around, intermixed with cards and dice, which the love of pleasure had collected, and which superstitious fear now discarded.—Here, friends were imparting to each other their last injunctions; there, cowards drained the bottle for that courage which fails them, or hid their fears under the most disgusting bravadoes. * * *

"On both sides of us, regiments of cavalry were passing and charging the enemy: the roar of the artillery was terrible. Here, a powder wagon blew up—there, a wounded man came galloping with five or six led horses, which were frightfully scattered by a pursuing shot. We already saw many wounded; but the most appalling sight was that of horses torn to pieces by cannon balls, and rolling themselves with agonized strength in their own gore. In the midst of this awful scene, we were disgusted by the profane jokes of a private, who kept capering and throwing his arms about in mockery whenever a ball came flying our way. He had even gone so far as to fasten a false beard to his chin; and we were all wishing to see his indecencies put a stop to, when a ball struck him, and carried off both his beard and a portion of his face. Awful as the sight was, it excited a general laugh.

"It was four o'clock when an adjutant informed us that we should soon be engaged. We sang one of Korner's battle hymns, and had scarcely finished it, and formed our lines, when Blucher, with his suite, came up to us. The enthusiasm with which the hoary commander was greeted could not dispel the gloom which hovered on his brow, and which told us all that we had a hot day before us. Now the longed-for moment arrived, when we volunteers were ordered forward.—With loud hurras we rushed against the village of Ligny, which was then crowded with enemies, but were soon startled at the sight of a ravine which separated us from the place. The major, who was riding behind us, and composedly smoking his pipe, merely said, 'Children, do honor to the regiment!' when we, to a man, jumped or slid down into the hollow, and, climbing up on the opposite side, broke, wherever we could, through the hedges, out of which a discharge of musquetry received us. Separated by the plantation with which each house was surrounded, every one had now to fight by his own guidance. The village was intersected by a deep brook, in which, however, there was at the time but little water; and the communication between the two sides was kept up by means of single planks laid across the stream. * * * * It was a murderous fight. Shots fell from every aperture of the houses, between and behind which the French kept up a constant firing in columns, while cannon balls were pouring down on us from a neighboring eminence, and several houses were on fire. This hailstorm of balls, which every moment scattered brick-bats, tiles, and branches of trees about us, startled even the oldest warriors. I fell in, at the gap of a hedge, with four soldiers, none of whom seemed willing to pass first. Their sneers at the 'young Yager' made me take the lead, and I stepped over the corpse of an enemy, whom our shots had just killed. I cast a melancholy look at the pale face of the dead soldier, who was immediately rifled of his watch by the man who followed me.

"We got near a house which was attacked on all sides, and, expelled by fire and smoke, six grenadiers rushed out of it, offering a close front, and presenting their bayonets to us. More than twenty shots were fired, and they sank, one after the other, to rise no more. I was taking aim, when a fellow soldier, who was just loading his musket, called my attention to a Frenchman who was quietly kneeling in an open shed, strapping his knapsack, as if he was preparing for a parade. "Take off that one!" said the soldier. 'I will not,' I replied; but, at the same moment, some shots from another quarter stretched the defenceless man on the ground. * * * The battle continued. Without hope of coming out of it alive, I continued firing and sheltering myself behind trees for about three hours, which passed to me like so many minutes, without my being aware that on both sides of me our troops had been twice driven back by the furious onsets and the superior numbers of the enemy. It might be about seven in the evening, when a comrade called out to me, 'Yager, look to your left!' I quickly turned in that direction, and perceived a party of Frenchmen pushing [illegible] and, at the same time, I saw our major giving the signal of retreat, which was repeated by the bugle. The narrow bridge over which we had to pass was choked with people, and we stopped for some time exchanging shots with the enemy.—At last we were compelled to think of our own safety; one of our officers boldly leaped into the ditch, and was wounded; I followed him, and got safely up the opposite bank, and behind some trees, where I was sheltered. Perhaps I might have got off unhurt; but at this moment a wounded friend called for my assistance, and while I was hastening towards him, three shots were fired at me; the first missed, the second separated both my bandoleers across my chest, and the third hit me under the knee and tore the muscle of the leg."

GEOGRAPHY OF PLANTS.

Every zone has its peculiar vegetables, and as we miss some, we find others make their appearance as if to replace those which are absent. At the equator we find the natives of the Spice Islands, the clove and nutmeg trees, pepper and mace. Cinnamon bushes clothe the surface of Ceylon, the odoriferous sandal wood, the ebony tree, the banyan tree, grow in the East Indies. In the same latitudes in Arabia the Happy, we find balm, frankincense, and myrrh, the coffee tree and the tamarind. But in these countries, at least in the plains, the trees and shrubs which decorate our more northerly climate, are wanting. And as we go northward, at every step we change, the vegetable group, both by addition and subtraction. In the thickets to the west of the Caspian sea, we have the apricot, citron, peach and walnut. In the same latitude in Spain, Sicily, and Italy, we find the dwarf palm, the cypress, the chesnut, the cork tree, the orange and lemon; these perfume the air with their blossoms; the myrtle and pomegranate grow wild among the rocks. We cross the Alps and we find the vegetation that belongs to northern Europe, of which England is an instance. The oak, the beech, and the elm, are natives of Great Britain and America; the elm tree seen in Scotland, and in the north of England, is the wych elm. As we travel still further to the north the forests again change their character. In the northern province of the Russian Empire are found forests of the various species of firs; the Scotch and spruce fir, and the birch. In the Orkney Islands, no tree is found but the hazel, which occurs again on the northern shore of the Baltic. As we travel into colder regions we find species adapted to their situation.

The hoary or cold elder makes its appearance north of Stockholm; the sycamore and mountain oak accompany us to the head of the Gulph of Bothnia; and as we leave this and traverse the Dophrain range, we pass in succession the boundary lines of the spruce fir, and those minute shrubs which botanists distinguish as the dwarf birch and dwarf willow. Here within the arctic circle we find wild flowers of great beauty, the mezerum, the willow, and white water lily, and the European globe flower; and when these fail us, the rein deer moss still makes the country habitable for animals and man. When one class fails, another appears in its place. The corn, wine, and oil, have each its boundaries. Wheat extends through the old continent from England to Thibet, but does not succeed well in the west of Scotland; nor does it thrive better in the torrid zone than in the polar regions; within the tropics, wheat, barley, and oats, are not cultivated; excepting about the level of the sea; the vine succeeds only where the autumnal temperature is between fifty and sixty degrees. In both the hemispheres it cannot be profitably cultivated, within thirty degrees of the equator, unless in elevated situations, or in islands, as Teneriffe.

The limits of the cultivation of maize and olives in France, are parallel to those which bound the vine and corn in succession to the north. In the north of Italy, west to Milan, we first meet with the cultivation of rice, which extends over all the southern part of Asia. In the New World cotton can be cultivated to latitude forty, and in the Old to forty-six. The sugar cane, the plantain, the mulberry, the betel nut, the indigo tree, the tea tree, flourish in India and China—and in America and the West Indies, several of these plants have been successfully cultivated. The bread fruit begins to be cultivated in the Manillas, and extends through the Pacific; the sago palm in the Moluccas, and the cabbage tree in the Pelew Islands.

From the Lexington Intelligencer.

MARRIAGE INSURANCE COMPANY.

WITH A CAPITAL OF ————.

Projector—In the eighteenth century every thing in the social order was overthrown, because people doubted of every thing; in the nineteenth we doubt of nothing, because nothing is left to chance, insurance re-organizes society; the moneyed man governs fate—fate governs the world. Every step of life is insured until death, inclusively. It is said that a company is forming to insure ministers, kings, statesmen, &c., who are so much more than others exposed to shipwrecks and breakers.

Capitalist—I do not see the drift of all this preamble; facts, sir, if you please, I must have something positive, actuals, palpables.

Projector—My scheme embraces all those requisites; but it needs delicacy and preliminary preparations.

Capitalist—What do you wish to insure, sir?

Projector—Since I must speak out, it is a scheme of insurance against what causes the misfortune of young ladies, namely, too long a state of celibacy.

Capitalist—(eagerly,)—Quite an ingenious scheme!

Projector—You take then! Now, you see, that the wish of having husbands will engage all the young ladies to be insured, and the company will derive immense benefits.

Capitalist—I understand; but how will you settle the premium?

Projector—It is to be "graded" in proportion to beauty, fortune and talents, for the chances of celibacy will not be the same for the young 'insurees.' They are not to be all insured for the same age; some for 20, 25, others for 30, and even 35 years old; if at the expiration of those terms, the insured is not married, the premium of insurance will be paid to her; which may help her to find a husband.

Capitalist—Very well, but does not the company reserve the power of acting so that the insurer may find a husband before the prescribed term of insurance?

Projector—Undoubtedly. The company shall have agents, brokers, and candidate bachelors, beside every possible means of allurement to promote its ends; therefore it will seldom have indemnities to pay. It is a splendid scheme!

Capitalist—Yes! The [illegible] are certain.

Projector—Much gain, and no losses! It is really the very summit of progress in speculation! To insure against death cannot prevent people from dying, no more than to insure against fire will from houses being burnt, or insurance on ships prevent a tempest; but an insurance on celibacy will cause people to marry.

Capitalist—But it must be understood that the company shall always have at its disposal, a collection of suitable men, as lawyers, physicians editors of newspapers, merchants, tradesmen, whom it shall use as decoy birds to encourage the fair insurers.

Projector—It is an indispensable condition to insure success. Trust me for that part of the business!

Capitalist—Well! I am your man, but let it rest between us. No noise, no puffing, that's worn out; secrecy and activity. Set about it instantly and bring me the draft of association tomorrow. In the meantime, I'll cash $8000 in the scheme.

Russian Empire.—The Russian empire in Europe has been nearly doubled in little more than half a century. In sixty-four years she has advanced her frontier eight hundred and fifty miles towards Vienna, Berlin, Dresden, Munich, and Paris; she has approached four hundred and fifty miles nearer to Constantinople; she has possessed herself of the capital of Poland; and has advanced to within a few miles of the capital of Sweden, from which, when Peter the First mounted the throne, her frontier was distant three hundred miles. Since that time she has stretched herself forward about one thousand miles towards India, and the same distance towards the capital of Persia. The regiment that is now stationed at her farthest frontier post, on the western shore of the Caspian, has as great a distance to march back to Moscow as onward to Attock on the Indus, and is actually further from St. Petersburg, than from Lahore, the capital of the Seiks. The battalions of the Russian Imperial Guard, that invaded Persia, found at the termination of the war, that they were as near to Herat as to the banks of the Don; that they had already accomplished half the distance from their capital to Delhi; and that, therefore, from their camp in Persia they had as great a distance to march back to St. Petersburgh as onward to the capital of Hindostan. —*Progress of Russia in the East.*

Improved Telegraph.—Mr. Gonore, a French gentleman, is making an exhibition, at New Orleans, of a new system of telegraphical communication, which he has invented as the result of more than twenty years' study. It is not alphabetical, yet he says that he can communicate with exactness, the most abstract despatch. This he will accomplish with the use of no more signals than words, and often 10 to 50 per cent. less signals than words, preserving strictly the orthography and punctuation. He thinks that the President's message might be communicated entire, to the extreme points of the horizon, wherever lines of signal are established, in less than four hours, and a despatch of 100 or 150 words in half or three quarters of an hour.